DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 407 715 EA 028 339

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TITLE Supervision Travelling Incognito: The Forgotten Sister Discipline of Educational Administration.
PUB DATE [97]
NOTE 34p.
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Opinion Papers (120)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Curriculum Development; *Educational Administration; *Educational History; Elementary Secondary Education; Instructional Leadership; School Administration; *Supervision; *Supervisory Methods; *Teacher Supervision

ABSTRACT

The field of instructional supervision in schools has a history of being misunderstood and devalued, having been beset by problems of definition and purpose. This paper examines the history of supervision and its ties with educational administration, and describes implications for supervision and administration. There is a history of tension between the two fields, and supervision has benefitted by disassociating itself from administration. The paper calls for more discourse between the two disciplines. Supervision can provide a vehicle for focusing on curriculum, staff development, and classroom visitation; can provide a new paradigm for supervision (supervision as a vehicle for teacher empowerment rather than as a means to control teachers); and can help teachers experiment with practice and self-directed action. Supervision should enter the educational administration discourse and begin to exchange ideas and concepts that can enlarge and enrich the understanding of teaching and learning. One figure and one table are included. (Contains 131 references.) (LMI)

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Supervision Traveling Incognito: The Forgotten Sister Discipline of Educational Administration

submitted to

Educational Administration Quarterly

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ED 407 715

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Abstract

Supervision as a role and function in schools has at times been inauspicious and often controversial. Sometimes maligned, often misunderstood, and certainly undervalued, supervision has mirrored and been foreshadowed by developments occurring primarily in administration. The evidence indicates that the field of supervision was beset by problems, among others, of definition and purpose. Unable to gain recognition and establish a foothold for itself, supervision remained vulnerable and thus "traveled incognito." This article examines the nature of "supervision traveling incognito," traces its history, and explores its relationship with administration. Implications for supervision and administration are drawn.

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Supervision Traveling Incognito: The Forgotten Sister Discipline of Educational Administration

Introduction

Instructional supervision has been characterized as an "educational concept" (e.g., Glickman, 1992), a "field of study" (e.g., Smyth, 1987), a "specialty," a "practice" (e.g., Garman & Haggerson, 1993) and a "community of scholars" (Bolin, 1988). It began as a responsibility of citizens in colonial America, then as a role within the schools. It became associated with teacher rating as its main (but not exclusive) activity. When teacher rating became fault-finding and fell in disfavor among teachers at the height of scientific management in the 1920s, the role of supervisor was dismantled, disembodied, and "traveled incognito" (Spears, 1953).

Today supervision once again travels incognito. Depending upon point of view, one could characterize supervision as a subfield or "arm" of administration (Lucio & McNeil, 1969), or as an educational specialty distinct from administration (ASCD Working Group on the Roles and Responsibilities of Supervisors, 1978). Still, others might argue that supervision is a specialty of teacher education (e.g., Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1992). Its territory is claimed by many, but often for different and incompatible purposes.

Instructional supervision is defined by the authors of this article as a field of study that is concerned with concepts and techniques that help teachers to study their teaching and to improve upon learning opportunities for their students. Supervision primarily focuses on the functions and interrelationships of curriculum, staff development, and classroom visitation, according to the authors of three dozen popular and representative supervision textbooks published in the past 60 years (Holland, 1994). Consequently, supervision draws upon writings in other fields of study such as curriculum, educational administration, cognitive psychology and

teacher education to provide insights into those matters that concern teaching and learning. We take a mid-range view of the field. Supervision neither narrowly and exclusively focuses on teacher evaluation, nor over broadly includes such administrative tasks as budgeting, scheduling, and public relations. For us, supervision is what undergirds teaching, learning, and the curriculum (See Figure 1).

In recent times there have been calls from the field to abolish supervision (Starratt, 1992), to find substitutes for it (Sergiovanni, 1992a), to imagine schools where supervision will no longer be needed (Sergiovanni, 1992b), and to move into a new paradigm (Gordon, 1992). In order to understand current dilemmas of the field, we look to its past. The purposes of this article are to examine the history of supervision and its ties with educational administration, and to present implications for supervision and administration.

The Historical Context

The earliest studies of supervision (Prince, 1901; Suzzallo 1906) give marginal treatment to the origins of supervisory practice. Earliest recorded instances of the word "supervision" established the process as "general management, direction, control, and oversight" (Grumet, 1979, p. 193; Gwynn, 1961).

"inspectors" were referred to frequently in records of the Colonial period. They were often ministers, selectmen, schoolmasters, and other distinguished citizens. Their methods of supervision stressed strict control and close inspection of school facilities. As Spears (1953) explained: "The early period of school supervision, from the colonization of America on down through at least the first half of the nineteenth century, was based on the idea of maintaining the existing standards of instruction, rather than on the idea of improving them" (p. 41).

Schooling during the better part of the nineteenth century was rural, unbureaucratic, and in the hands of local authorities. The prototypical school was a small one-room school house. According to Tyack and Hansot (1982), teachers were "young, poorly paid, and rarely educated beyond the elementary subjects" (p. 17). Teachers, who were mostly female, were "hired and supervised largely by local lay trustees, they were not members of a self-regulating profession. . ." (p. 17). These lay

trustees were not professionally trained nor very much interested in the improvement of instruction (Button, 1961; Tyack, 1974).

The tradition of lay supervision continued after the Revolution through the middle of the nineteenth century or, as commonly referred to, the end of the common era. Despite the emergence of a new "American system of educational thought and practice . . . the quality of supervision would not improve appreciably . . . " (Tanner & Tanner, 1987, p. 10). Yet, the character of supervision would change dramatically.

Supervision in the late nineteenth century

The second half of the nineteenth century was characterized by unprecedented growth precipitated by the industrial revolution. The struggle for the growth of American education continued and assumed a new dimension in the latter decades of the nineteenth century. The schoolmen, specifically superintendents, began shaping schools in large cities into networks. Organization was the rallying cry nationally and locally. There was a firm belief that highly organized and efficient schools would meet the demands of a newly developed industrialized age.

The reform movement in education was reflective of the larger, more encompassing changes that were occurring societally. Although this century was characterized by rapid economic growth, reformers realized that there were serious problems in the schools. In the battle to reorganize the nation's schools, sources of authority and responsibility in education were permanently transformed (Tyack, 1974). Reformers, concerned with undermining inefficiency and corruption, transformed schools into streamlined, central administrative bureaucracies with superintendents as supervisors in charge (Elsbree, 1939; Gilland, 1935; Griffiths, 1966; Reller, 1935). During this struggle, the superintendent used supervision as an important tool to legitimize his existence in the school system (Glanz, 1991). Supervision, therefore, was a tool of efficiency for superintendents.

Supervision as inspection became the dominant method for administering schools. Payne (1875), author of the first published textbook on supervision, stated that teachers must be "held responsible" for work performed in the classroom and that supervisors, as expert inspectors, would "oversee" and ensure "harmony and efficiency." A prominent superintendent, James M. Greenwood (1888) said that "very much of my time is devoted to visiting schools and inspecting the work" (p. 521). The skilled superintendent, said Greenwood (1891) emphatically, should simply walk into the classroom and "judge from a compound sensation of the disease at work among

the inmates" (p. 227). A review of the literature of the period indicates that Greenwood's supervisory methods, which relied on inspection based on intuition, rather than technical or scientific knowledge, were widely practiced.

Teachers, for the most part, were seen by nineteenth century supervisors as inept. For instance, Balliet (1894), a superintendent from Massachusetts, insisted that there were only two types of teachers: the efficient and the inefficient. The only way to reform the schools, thought Balliet, was to "secure a competent superintendent; second, to let him 'reform' all the teachers who are incompetent and can be 'reformed'; thirdly, to bury the dead" (pp. 437-438). One characteristic remedy to improve teaching was the following: "Weak teachers should place themselves in such a position in the room that every pupil's face may be seen without turning the head" (Fitzpatrick, 1893, p. 76). As Bolin and Panaritis (1992) explained: "Teachers (mostly female and disenfranchised) were seen as a bedraggled troop, incompetent and backward in outlook" (p. 33).

The practice of supervision by inspection was very compatible with the emerging bureaucratic school system. Supervision was perceived by many teachers as inspectional, rather than as helping. Because inspection gained wide application, it can be considered to be the first model of supervision (see chart - Model #1).

This brief examination of early methods of supervision indicates that: (1) amidst the upheavals of late nineteenth century, American supervision emerged as an important function performed by superintendents; (2) autocratic methods dominated its practice; and (3) supervision was a function subsumed under the broader category of school administration. During this period, then, proponents of administrative theory and practice advocated supervision as an important function. For all intents and purposes, supervision was indeed the "arm of administration."

The emergence of the distinct position of supervisor

In the first two decades of the twentieth century, schooling grew dramatically. As the size and complexity of schools increased, greater administrative specialization was apparent. In addition to the building principal, a new cadre of administrative officers emerged assuming major responsibility for day-to-day classroom supervision. Two specific groups of supervisors were commonly found in schools in the early twentieth century. First, a "special supervisor," most often female with no formal training and chosen by the building principal, was relieved of some teaching to help less experienced teachers in subject-matter mastery. Larger schools, for example,

had a number of special supervisors in each of the major subject areas.

Second, a "general supervisor," usually male, was selected to not only deal with more "general" subjects such as mathematics and science, but also to "assist" the principal in the more administrative operations of a school. The general supervisor, subsequently called assistant principal, would prepare attendance reports, collect data for evaluation, and coordinate special programs, among other duties (Glanz, 1994).

Differences in functions between special and general supervisors reflected the prevalent notions of male-female roles in the nineteenth century. Note the remarks made by a prominent superintendent, William E. Chancellor: "That men make better administrators I have already said. As a general proposition, women make the better special supervisors. They are more interested in details. They do not make as good general supervisors or assistant superintendents, however" (1904, p. 210). William H. Payne(1875), another influential superintendent pronounced: "Women cannot do man's work in the schools" (p. 49). Payne, like many others, believed that men were better suited for the more prestigious and lucrative job opportunities.

It is also interesting to note that special supervisors were more readily accepted by teachers than general supervisors. Special supervisors helped teachers in their classrooms in the practical areas of spelling, penmanship, and art. In addition, special supervisors did not have any independent authority and did not serve in an evaluative capacity as did, for example, the general supervisor, who was given authority to evaluate instruction. Therefore, teachers were not likely to be threatened by the appearance of the special supervisor in their classrooms. The general supervisor, on the other hand, was viewed as more menacing to the teacher. Special supervisors also probably gained more acceptance by teachers, most of whom were female, because they too were female. General supervisors were all male and perhaps were perceived differently as a result. In his analysis of this period, Frank Spaulding (1955) stated that general supervisors "were quite generally looked upon, not as helpers, but as critics bent on the discovery and revelation of teachers' weaknesses and failures, ...[T]hey were dubbed Snoopervisors" (p. 130).

The position of the special supervisor did not endure for long. The responsibilities of the position were steadily usurped by general supervisors. Special supervisors were not perceived in the same light as were general supervisors, principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents, who were of course mostly male. Gender bias and the sexual division of labor in schools go far toward explaining the disappearance of the special supervisor. In short, general supervisors gained wider acceptance simply because they were men.

Scientific management influences administration and supervision

As mentioned, bureaucracy in education influenced administrative and supervisory practices before 1900. A second influence was the emergence of the principles of scientific management. Although the "efficiency movement," as it is commonly referred to, has been discussed in regards to the development of school administration (Campbell, Fleming, Newell, & Bennion, 1987), its influence on supervisory theory and practice remains unexplored. A brief discussion of scientific management's impact on supervision will indicate how supervisory methods were influenced and how this contributed to supervision remaining as "an arm of administration."

After 1900 American education was greatly affected by numerous technological advances. As a result of the work of Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911) who published The Principles of Scientific Management, "efficiency" became the watchword of the day. Taylor's book stressed scientific management and efficiency in the workplace. The worker, according to Taylor, was merely a cog in the business machinery and the main purpose of management was to promote efficiency of the worker. Within a short time, Taylorism and efficiency became household words and ultimately had a profound impact on administrative and supervisory practices in schools.

Franklin Bobbitt (1913) tried to apply the ideas espoused by Taylor to the "problems of educational management and supervision." Bobbitt's work, particularly his discussion of supervision, is significant because his ideas shaped the character and nature of supervision for many years. On the surface these ideas appeared to advance professional supervision but, in reality, they were the antithesis of professionalism. What he called "scientific and professional supervisory methods" were, in fact, scientistic and bureaucratic methods aimed not at professionalizing but at finding a legitimate and secure niche for control-oriented supervision within the school bureaucracy.

In 1913 Bobbitt published "Some General Principles of Management Applied to the Problems of City School Systems," which presented eleven major principles of scientific management applied to education. Bobbitt, then an instructor of educational administration at the University of Chicago, firmly held that management, direction, and supervision of schools were necessary in order to achieve "organizational goals." Bobbitt maintained that supervision was an essential function "to coordinate school affairs." "Supervisory members must coordinate the labors of all, ... find the best

methods of work, and enforce the use of these methods on the part of the workers" (p. 15).

Believing the field to be backward, Bobbitt thought it feasible to apply these principles even though most administrators of the time were unaware of their importance. "Our profession must advance along the same road as that already traversed by the best of the industrial world" (p. 7). Scientific principles in supervision, said Bobbitt, were needed for the continued progress of the school system.

Many supervisors were eager to adopt Bobbitt's ideas, but a few were not (Barr & Burton, 1926). One of his more vociferous opponents was James Hosic (1924), a professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia. Hosic contended that Bobbitt's "analogy is largely false" (p. 283). "Teaching cannot be 'directed' in the same way as bricklaying." "In education," continued Hosic, "the supervisor's function is not to devise all plans and work out all standards and merely inform his co-workers as to what they are." The supervisor, held Hosic, "should not so much give orders as hold conferences." "His prototype is not a captain, lieutenant, or officer of the guard in industry, but chairman of committee or consulting expert" (p. 283).

The criticisms against Bobbitt's methods stressed a number of disturbing ideas. First and foremost was the ill-conceived notion that "education in a school" is analogous to "production in a factory." Bobbitt (1913) claimed, that "education is a shaping process as much as the manufacture of steel rails" (p. 12). Supervisors in the early twentieth century were becoming aware of the fallacy of this logic as well as realizing the negative effects of bureaucracy in education. Bobbitt's scientific management and supervision found justification within a school organization that was bureaucratically organized.

Still, the significance of Bobbitt's work was his advocacy of scientific and professional supervisory methods. Supervisors thought that by adopting principles of "scientific management" their work in schools would be more clearly defined and accepted by teachers. Supervisors believed, as did Bobbitt (1920), that "the way to eliminate the personal element from administration and supervision is to introduce impersonal methods of scientific administration and supervision" (p. 434). This was often translated into the development of rating schemes. In a short time, supervision became synonymous with teacher rating. Supervisors, influenced by prevailing theories in school administration, looked to Bobbitt's ideas of scientific management and teacher efficiency as a means to gain legitimacy for their work.

Supervision was influenced by developments in educational administration. Just as "supervision as inspection" reflected the "emergence of bureaucracy" in

administration, so too "supervision as social efficiency" was largely influenced by scientific management in school administration (see chart - Model #2).

The emergence of democratic methods in supervision

The movement to alter supervisory theory and practice to a more democratic approach, while at the same time minimizing the evaluative function, occurred in the 1920s as a direct result of growing opposition to autocratic methods. Consequently, supervisors tried to change their image as "snoopervisors" by adopting alternate methods.

Influenced in large measure by John Dewey's (1929) theories as well as by Hosic's (1920) ideas of democratic supervision, supervisors attempted to apply scientific methods and cooperative problem-solving approaches to educational problems (Pajak, 1993). Supervision during this period reflected efforts to employ democratic and scientific methods (see chart - Models 3 & 4). Democratic supervision, in particular, implied that educators (including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors) would cooperate in order to improve instruction. Efforts by prominent superintendent, Jesse Newlon (1923), reinforced democracy in supervision. He maintained that the school organization must be set up to "invite the participation of the teacher in the development of courses. . . ." (p. 406). The ends of supervision can be realized when teacher and supervisor work in a coordinated fashion. Newlon developed the idea of setting up "supervisory councils" to offer "genuine assistance" to teachers. In this way, he continued, "the teacher will be regarded as a fellow-worker rather than a mere cog in a big machine" (pp. 406, 410-411).

Democratic supervision focused on making supervision more palatable and acceptable to teachers. Despite the advancement of a democratic theory and efforts by supervisors to distinguish themselves from administrators, the stigma of supervision as an autocratic and inspectional function was not easily lifted. Nor was the idea that supervision and administration were different entities easily dispelled. Still, attempts by supervisors to disassociate themselves from administrators by advocating "democratic supervision" can be viewed as the first efforts at "traveling incognito."

Supervisors strive for professional autonomy

By the 1920s supervisors were distinct from superintendents and other high level administrators by such job titles as: special and general supervisors, principals,

supervisors of special subjects, supervisors of curriculum and instruction, and state supervisors. Supervisors tried to attain professional recognition in their own right through the formation of a new organization and journal, the first of their kind devoted exclusively to supervision. James Hosic (1921) lamented that there was a dearth of literature in the field of supervision, while there was much written about administration. Hosic also charged that there was a growing need for an organization dealing with the concerns of supervisors. After all, Hosic continued, even teachers had their own organization. Hence, the birth of the National Conference on Educational Method (NCEM). In May 1922, the editor of the Journal of Educational Method proclaimed, "Meanwhile, through every possible agency we shall do well to publish the fact that supervision is a distinct occupation in itself, worthy of life-long devotion and demanding peculiar training and fitness" (Editorial, 1922). An examination of the publications, statements, and activities of this new supervisory organization indicates a desire to redefine and reconceptualize supervision as a distinct professional enterprise incorporating "democratic" methods to improve instruction.

In 1928 the NCEM changed its name to the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. A number of prestigious educators contributed to the organization's first yearbook (National Conference on Educational Method, 1928). People like Alvin S. Barr, Orville Brim, William H. Burton and L. J. Brueckner added prestige to their drive for professional acknowledgment. A year later the organization again changed its name by dropping "National Conference" from its title. Becoming part of the National Educational Association, it was now called the Department of Supervisors and the Directors of Instruction (DSDI) (see chart). Membership consisted primarily of supervisors in local schools and in state departments of education.

One of the major themes of the DSDI was to make a clear distinction between supervision and administration. Administrators were more concerned with administering and attending to the exigencies of the school organization, rather than instructional matters. Perusal of publications throughout the period indicates the dearth of attention to instruction. Supervisors wanted to isolate themselves from practices that might be perceived by teachers as bureaucratic and fault-finding. Emphasizing instruction and educational methods, supervisors thought, would provide acceptance and legitimacy in the eyes of teachers and strengthen their professional status. A new emphasis of supervision was aimed at accentuating democratic relationships between teachers and supervisors. Supervisors realized that if they were to become professionals then they needed their own identity. They thought an identity would emerge by establishing unique standards and specialized knowledge

distinct from school administration. In short, they argued that supervision was primarily concerned with instruction, not administration.

Curriculum as the new supervision

Unable to eschew their legacy as an "arm of administration," supervisors encountered an unintended obstacle. Forming an alliance with curriculum workers, they thought, would bolster their status in the eyes of teachers. Yet, this alliance provoked intractable problems.

Curriculum development in the nineteenth century was minimal, episodic, and controlled by superintendents. Schoolmen were chiefly interested more in structural, administrative reform to achieve their goals of standardization and uniformity of education. However, by the 1920s and the 1930s curriculum became an important focus as evidenced by (1) the widely disseminated work of Thorndike, Strayer, and Terman (Seguel, 1966) in scientific methods of education, (2) Bobbitt's (1920) work in Los Angeles, as well as his important book, How to Make a Curriculum, (Bobbitt, 1924), (3) curriculum revisions in city systems, such as Denver and Detroit, (4) the formation of curriculum bureaus, and (5) the important role played by national committees and commissions, as well as the growing state curriculum projects (Seguel, 1966). Men such as Kilpatrick (1926), Charters (1923), Harap (1928), and Caswell (1935) were prominent writers concerned with curriculum development. With the administrative structure of schooling now secure, emphasis was placed on more instructional and curricular issues.

In 1929 a group of college professors, under the leadership of Henry Harap, banded together to form the National Society of Curriculum Workers. After a merger with a school curriculum group a few years later, a new association was called the Society for Curriculum Study (SCS). Supervisors tried to gain legitimacy for their work by aligning themselves with this association. Soon, many educators maintained that supervision and curriculum were inextricably interwoven. In fact, many argued that supervision was synonymous with curriculum (Kyte, 1930). Two prominent educators of the time supported the view that supervision and curriculum were connected. Helen Heffernan of the California State Department of Education, and William H. Burton of the University of Southern California, who were both active in the DSDI, clearly stated that "the supervisor is increasingly the person responsible for the development of curriculum materials and experience. In fact, the heart of modern supervision is in the curriculum program" (Heffernan & Burton, 1939, p. 325).

The merger that forms ASCD

Supervisors, represented by the DSDI, and curriculum specialists, represented by the SCS, found it advantageous to merge into one organization. Although opposition to the merger was minimal, those who opposed merger were very vocal (e.g., Davis, 1978; Saylor, 1976). One opponent Helen Heffernan stated that the supervisory organization was the stronger of the two, due to a more substantial membership, and merger would not aid their efforts toward professionalism.

Most supervisors and curriculum workers welcomed the merger. Many realized that the goal of professionalism could be attained. Thus, the merger took place. The new organization was called the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development. Three years later the name was changed to the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) (see chart).

Supervision since the merger

After the merger, the focus of the field shifted to those functions considered essential in the performance of supervision, rather than on the position known as 'supervisor.' The field focused on process, without regard to the person. The rationale behind this shift was to minimize any negative reactions from teachers As a result, much confusion occurred in the notion that 'anyone' could perform supervision. Supervision suffered, so to speak, from an identity crisis. Under the circumstances, it was highly unlikely that supervisors would ever achieve the recognition they sorely craved. J. Harlan Shores president of ASCD explained the problem, "everybody knows what a teacher's and superintendent's roles and duties are -- not so with supervision and curriculum work" (Shores, 1967, p. v). Indicative of the confusion is that there was no agreement among writers of supervision on who supervisors were and what they did. Supervision during this time lacked a consensus in definition.

A second change concerned the function of supervision itself. Supervision did find a focus largely through its involvement in curriculum revision which was widespread throughout the nation during the 1950s. Supervisors joined with curriculum people in a cooperative venture to make and revise curriculum. Supervisors, more so than any time in the past, advocated democratic supervision in definite ways. Glenys G. Unruh (1975) president of ASCD stated that "supervision at its best is an art that can release teachers' initiative, responsibility, creativity, internal commitment and motivation" (p. vii).

In more recent times

In the past three decades supervision continued to assert itself as an independent entity. First, in 1975 the Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision (COPIS) was formed to provide a professional forum and to promote communications regarding the field. Through the initiative of Robert Alfonso, Jerry Firth, and Ben Harris, the first meeting convened in New Orleans. Patterned after the Professors of Curriculum that was affiliated with ASCD, COPIS was limited to professors who taught and wrote about supervision. Charter members include notables such as: Robert Anderson (non–gradedness), Morris Cogan and Noreen Garman (clinical supervision), Ben Harris (evaluation), and Tom Sergiovanni (moral leadership). COPIS continues to meet twice a year and has 86 members who are elected into the group (Anderson, 1987).

In 1978 an ASCD task force was formed to examine the roles and responsibilities of instructional supervisors. It reviewed existing certification and preparation programs, conducted phone interviews with heads of the major professional organizations, and reviewed the literature of supervision, which by that time had become substantial with scholars such as Alfonso, Firth and Neville (1975), Blumberg (1974), Harris (1975), Eye, Netzer & Krey (1971), Lucio and McNeil (1969), Oliva (1976), Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971), and Wiles and Lovell (1975). Among its conclusions was:

> There is confusion, disagreement, dysfunction, and problems associated with role definitions for supervisors: (a) the title may not reflect the role; (b) the authority structure may not be appropriate for the responsibilities; and (c) there is often conflicting expectations for the supervisor between administration and teachers (ASCD Working Group on the Roles and Responsibilities of Supervisors, 1978, p.ii).

The task force recommended a differentiation of supervision from administration, as advocated earlier in the 1920s by Hosic and others. One result of this effort was that standards were developed for preparing supervisors (ASCD, 1982–83).

Then in 1983 a Special Interest Group (SIG) for instructional supervision was formed in the American Educational Research Association (AERA) and convened its first meeting in Montreal. The SIG: Instructional Supervision was founded by Noreen Garman and Helen Hazi and financially sponsored in its first year by COPIS. Its purpose was to provide a professional forum for those involved in current research, theory, and practice in supervision. This group is open to all practitioners and researchers and draws its more than 100 international members from both preservice and inservice supervision communities. Since 1983 sessions on supervision have regularly appeared on the annual AERA program.

In 1985 a scholarly journal was established by ASCD called the Journal of Curriculum and Supervision (JCS). In a decade JCS provided a vehicle for 300 articles published in its 40 issues. Approximately 40 percent of the research articles have focused on supervision. Included are topics such as: conceptions of supervision, theory, legal issues, the work of supervisors, evaluation of practice, the supervisory conference, history, and reflective practice. JCS is the primary journal for scholarly work on supervision in North America (Short, 1995).

* * * * *

Approaches to supervision that have appeared in recent decades can be viewed as attempts to extend democratic methods to not only distinguish itself from administration and curriculum but also to find its niche in schools. Clinical (Cogan, 1973), developmental (Glickman, 1981), transformational (Liethwood & Jantzi, 1990), among other models of supervision, had a common bond in that they emerged to counter the ill-effects of supervision's bureaucratic legacy (see chart - Models 5 & 6). In effect, the field of supervision attempted to come to grips with its legacy by "traveling incognito." It was in fact Harold Spears (1953) who first believed the field was

traveling incognito:

> Thirty or forty years ago, when supervision was first settling down in the organizational scheme of things as a service to the classroom teacher, a supervisor was a supervisor. Today, when supervision is attaching itself to almost anything that has to do with furthering learning, a supervisor masquerades under a miscellaneous array of titles. Supervision today often travels incognito. (p. 84)

Instructional supervision still travels incognito in the 1990s under various pseudonyms. Glickman (1992), in his aptly titled Supervision in Transition, describes the field and its various pseudonyms:

> Most activities or programs that I, and others, have clearly articulated in the past as "supervisory" or "supervision" are not called by that name by today's risk-taking practitioners. Instead they use terms such as coaching, collegiality, reflective practitioners, professional development, critical inquiry, and study or research groups. Practitioners shun the word "supervision" to describe the what and why of their actions. (p.2)

No single job title identifies those who practice supervision and the work they do is primarily invisible. "...[M]any of the tasks in which supervisors engage, such as helping a teacher solve an instructional problem, either have intangible outcomes or take place outside the direct view of others and so go unnoticed" (Pajak, 1989, p. 179). Supervisors also improve the image of the school district and therefore spend much of their time making others who are more visible "look good." This invisibility comes with a price. Supervisors are invisible to the public, are infrequently recognized for their accomplishments, rarely receive praise, and are among the most vulnerable at budget time (Pajak, 1989).

Vulnerable, lacking consensus, and unwilling to stake claim to its original purpose, the field of supervision has tried to conceal itself and, as such, problems have intensified. The fact that supervision has been traveling incognito has important implications for supervision as well as educational administration.

Implications for Supervision and Administration

Our historical review has shown supervision's relationship with administration. By examining both recent and remote histories, one can conclude that there has been tensions between the two fields and that supervision has attempted to disassociate itself from administration. As has been shown, some of the factors contributing to the tensions have been the gender dominances of the respective fields and the negativity of teachers toward evaluation.

One can also conclude that this disassociation has been successful since supervision rarely appears in administration journals. For example, the terms supervisor and supervision appear in Educational Administration Quarterly five times between 1966 and 1981 and seven times between 1982 and 1995.[1] One explanation is that supervision scholars found and created other writing outlets such as Educational Leadership and JCS. However, according to educational administration scholars, issues of teaching and learning——the primary focus of supervision——are rare in the literature of administration (e.g., Erickson, 1979; Bridges, 1982; Sykes, 1988; Rowan, 1995).

Supervision has benefited from forming a community distinct from administration. This individuation has encouraged dialogue within the discipline, closer ties with other disciplines such as teacher education, and has resulted in more scholarship. However, it is time for more discourse between the "sister disciplines." One practical reason is that recent standards for Educational Leadership commissioned by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) promote the preparation of "generic" (rather than specialized) administrators. Thus, supervision also travels incognito in standards, appearing, instead, under the pseudonym "Instructional Leadership" as one of four broad standard areas.

Supervision can make a contribution to its sister discipline by providing a

vehicle for focusing on curriculum, staff development, and classroom visitation, three areas important to practice and inquiry in educational administration. Now, more than ever, administration needs to focus on these three areas——or in the language of administration, both direct and indirect instructional leadership. However, these areas are notably absent from the knowledge base work initiated by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration and done by the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) known as the Primis (see e.g. Hoy, 1994 for a summary of the seven areas of essential knowledge for educational leaders). Since Primis is in its second phase of expansion and modification, it would seem important to consider how curriculum, staff development, and classroom visitation support the learning mission of schools.

Supervision can also make a contribution by providing another perspective on calls for a paradigm shift in educational administration. Insights can be found in supervision's remote and recent pasts.

Supervision's call to disassociate from administration in the 1920s can be reinterpreted in retrospect as a call for a paradigm shift. Instead of calling for a paradigm shift---since the concept had to wait until the 1960s to be made popular by Kuhn (1970)---those in the field of supervision, like those in teaching, called for professionalization. Teachers, who had become the objects of scientific management techniques, believed that their major hope in remedying low pay, poor working conditions, and lack of involvement in decision making, was to create teachers' organizations and to join forces with organized labor (Spring, 1994). Teachers, who were mostly female and disempowered, sought professionalization as a backlash to the scientific management movement. When they spoke of professionalism, the term came to symbolize greater teacher control of educational policy (Spring, 1994; Urban, 1982). Supervisors, who were also women, similarly sought professionalization as a backlash to scientific management and the negativity of teachers towards evaluation

practices.

A paradigm is "the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community" (Kuhn, 1970, p. 175). A paradigm shift is "a profound change in the thoughts, perceptions, and values that form a particular vision of reality" (Capra, 1982, p.30). A paradigm shift is called for when the old set of values and beliefs no longer works. "Instead of immediately considering a new paradigm, the professional community will simply rely on different variations of the old paradigm in repeated failures to solve critical problems" (Gordon, 1992, p. 63). The call to disassociate from administration in the 1920s can be reinterpreted as a call to stop controlling teachers through evaluation.

In more recent times, Gordon (1992) called for a paradigm shift in supervision. He contrasts the "old supervision" with a "new supervision" where one of the key differences between the two "...is a transition from viewing supervision as a means of controlling teachers to viewing supervision as a vehicle for teacher empowerment" (p.64). The goal of the new supervision is instructional improvement where "the means for improvement becomes facilitation of teacher empowerment rather than control of teachers' behavior" and where supervisors act as mentors, authentic colleagues, and role models, not control agents (Gordon, 1992, p. 67).

Similarly, there are those in educational administration who likewise call for a paradigm shift. Among those are Rowan (1995) with an emphasis on cognitive–oriented approaches to teaching and learning, Prestine (1995) who calls for redefining and reconceptualizing administration and leadership away from a behaviorist's control and order mentality, and Sykes (1995) who sees teaching and learning as uncertain, without a core technology. Sykes (1995) further calls for dispositions of inquiry and reflection. Teaching (and administration) "...is steady engagement in practical inquiries——inventing, trying out, and evaluating solutions" (Sykes, 1995, p. 148).

Supervision techniques became popular in the 1970s and 1980s, as

administrators and their evaluation procedures came under court scrutiny when teachers were unfairly dismissed. Data collection systems, the post observation conference, and the preobservation conference provided administrators with more legally defensible data and behavior (Hazi, 1994). These same techniques can provide administrators the tools to help teachers to inquire into and reflect on their practice. Those in supervision cannot guarantee that they can improve instruction, but they can provide concepts and practices that have the potential to help administrators deal with the indeterminacy of teaching and learning.

Concepts and practices such as the following can provide perspectives and frameworks to help teachers to experiment with their practice and to become self–directed and self–supervising: action research (Lieberman, 1986), artistic approaches to supervision (Eisner, 1982), clinical supervision (Goldhammer, 1969; Cogan, 1973), cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 1986), colleague consultation (Goldsberry, 1986), culturally responsive supervision (Bowers & Flinders, 1991), developmental supervision (Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon, 1995), differentiated supervision (Glatthorn, 1984), mentoring (Gordon, 1991), peer coaching (Nolan & Hillkirk, 1991), and reflection (Garman, 1986; Zeichner & Liston, 1987; Smyth, 1984). In fact, the forthcoming Handbook of Research on School Supervision reflects the best concepts and practices of the field. This 48 chapter work, edited by Gerald Firth and Edward Pajak and to be published by Macmillan, is a defining event for the field and an opportunity for us to reflect on our heritage.

Thus, supervision and its various pseudonyms have had a tenuous position within the history and discourse of educational administration. This was not always the case. At one point in history some vigorously discussed the relationship between supervision and administration. For example, "[e]arly discussions devoted much space to this argument but modern knowledge and insight have made this a purely academic question. The two can be separated only arbitrarily for the sake of analysis. A

separation in function is impossible" (Barr, Burton & Brueckner, 1947, p. 27). We feel that supervision, as a sister discipline, should enter the educational administration discourse and begin an exchange of ideas and concepts that can enlarge and enrich our understanding of teaching and learning in the schools.

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Endnotes

[1]1. The topics of these articles include: goal–oriented supervision (Martin, Isherwood & Rapagna, 1978), outcome–based supervision (Niedermeyer, 1977), satisfaction/supervision of administrators (Schmidt, 1976; Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983), supervision of the junior college teacher (Thornton, 1971), conflict/power relations (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991; Wirt & Christovich, 1989), supervisors as subjects surveyed (Frasher & Frasher, 1979; Duke & Stiggins, 1985), supervision as a bureaucratic linkage to improve instruction (Firestone & Wilson, 1985; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan &

Lee, 1982), and an analysis of job titles (Rowan, 1982).

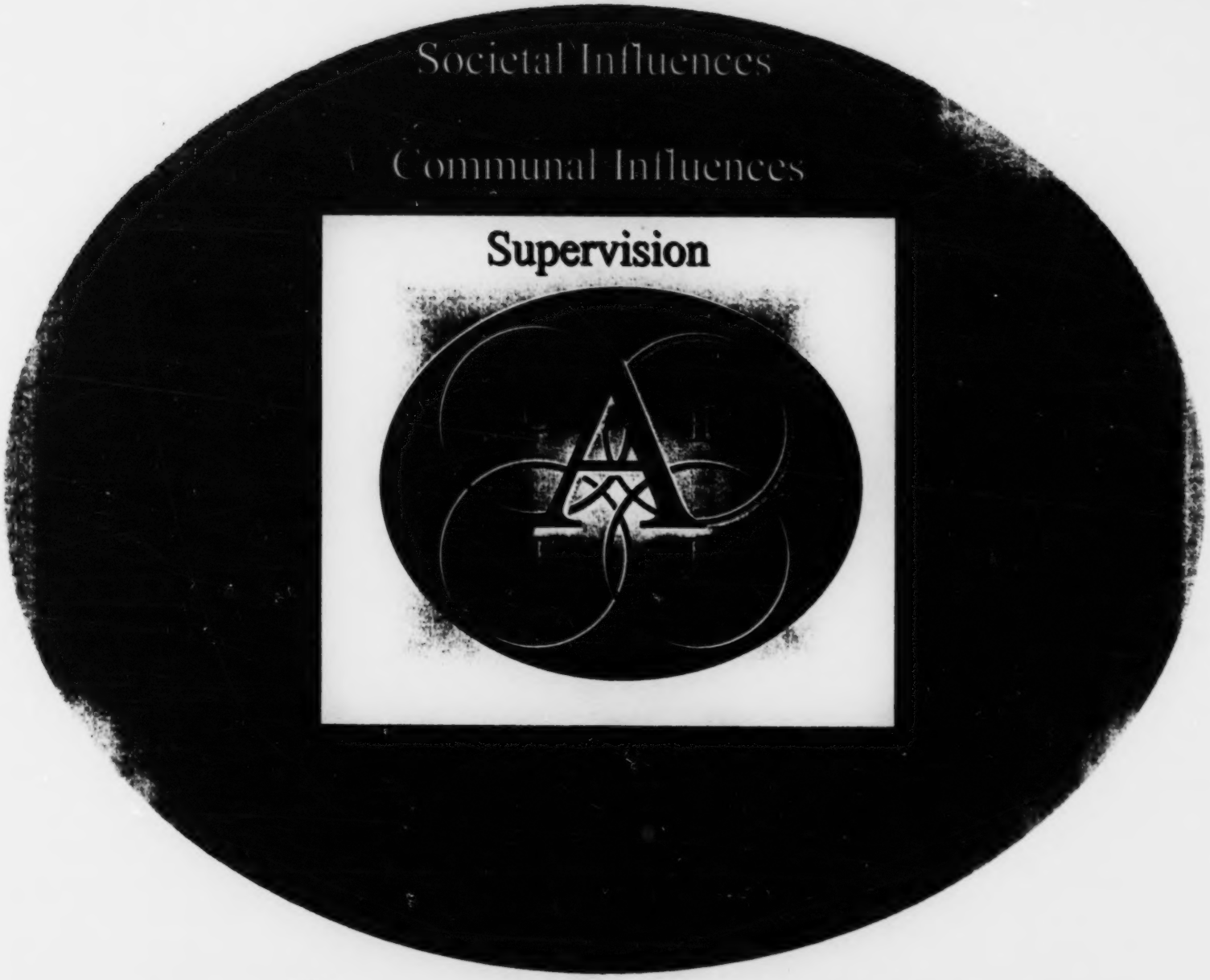

Figure 1

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	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990
Social/Cultural Markers	Garfield elected President; Edison Devises 1st electric light; Pasteur discovers Chicken Cholera; Gilbert & Sullivan's "Pirates of Penzance".	Walt Whitman dies ('92); Gentleman Jim Corbett beats John L. Sullivan for Heavyweight Boxing Title ('92); Jacob Riis The Children of the Poor; Vincent van Gogh dies.	1st magnetic recorded sound; Addams's Hull House; McKinley assassinated; Ford Motor Co. Founded ('03); San Francisco Earthquake ('06).	Titanic sinks ('12); Tolstoy dies Strawinsky Firebird Concerto; Dubois founds NAACP. W.W. I ('17)	Babe Ruth sold to the NY Yankees by the Red Sox; Burber's I & Thou ('23) Chaplin's The Gold Rush ('25); Amelia Earhart, 1st woman to fly the Atlantic Ocean	Roosevelt elected pres. ('32); Hitler appted. German Chancellor ('32); popular song Brother Can You Spare a Dime?; the Depression; Einstein's My Philosophy ('34); Carnegie's How to Win Friends & Influence People ('36); Huxley's Brave New World;	Lou Gehrig dies ('41); W.W. II; Pearl Harbor ('41); Rocky Graziano, Boxer of the Year ('41); Al Capone dies ('47); Joe Louis retires ('48); Truman elected president ('48); US tests first hydrogen bomb ('49).	Color TV ('51); McCarthy "witch hunts"; Einstein dies ('52); Stalin dies ('53); Sputnik ('57); Ian Fleming's Goldfinger ('59).	Eleanor Roosevelt dies ('62); JFK assassinated ('63); Cassius Clay — Heavyweight Champion ('64); Civil Rights Act ('64); Headstart ('65); Thurgood Marshall appt. to Supreme Ct. ('67); RFK & ML King assassinated ('68); Mets – World Series' Champs ('69).	Apollo XIV launched ('71); US bombs N. Vietnam ('71); Fischer beats Spassky ('72); Watergate ('73); Agnew resigns ('73); Nixon resigns ('74); Roszak's Making of a Counterculture ; Carter elected pres. ('76); Nobel Prize – Mother Theresa ('79).	Reagan elected pres. ('80); Piaget dies; O'Connor – 1st female Sup. Ct. Justice ('81); Black Monday – Stock Market Crash ('87).	Clinton elected pres. ('92).
Educational Markers		National Herbart Society; Comm. of Ten – Eliot; Rice's study of Schools	Dewey's Lab School (1896-03); Washington-DuBois Debates	AFT ('16) Dewey's Democracy and Education ('16) Cardinal Principles of Secondary Ed. ('18)		8–Year Study ('33–41); Counts' New Social Order ('32)	ASCD ('46)	Brown v. Bd. of Ed. ('54); NDEA ('58);	Silberman's Crisis in the Classroom Bruner's Process of Education ('60); ESEA ('65).	P.L. 94-142 ('75); Secretary of Ed. Cabinet Level ('79)	Nation at Risk ('83)	Holmes Group ('90); Goals 200 Kozol's Savage Equalities ('91)
Development of Educational Administration	<Emergence of <& American Harris –	Bureaucracy >Factory System> –Butler	<Scientific Mgmnt. Strayer–	Model # 1> –Spaulding–	–Cubberley–	— Newton— — Follette — Lewin — Dewey	<Bureaucracy	Model #3> Weber	<Open Systems Corwin Parsons	Democratic Mthds.> Blau	Leadership Sergiovanni Leithwood	
Evolution of Supervision	<Supervision as <Model Payne–Greenwood-Ballet	Inspection #1>	<Supervision as <Model Emergence of Special & General Supervisors	Social Efficiency> #2> Bobbitt	Natl. Conf. On Educ. Method ('21); debut of Jrnal ('21) 1st yearbook ('28) DSDI ('29)	<Democracy in <Model <Scientific <Model #4> Dewey–Hosic SCS ('32)	Supervision> #3> Supervision> Judd–Barr–Burton Hefferman ASCD est. ('46)	Spears	Clinical Supervision Model #5 Cogan– Goldhammer– Anderson	COPIS ('76)	<Changing German Glickman Sergiovanni AERA SIG ('83) JCS ('86)	Concepts> <Model #6

A View of Supervision in Relation to Educational Administration
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Chart 1

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